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EDITORIAL COMMENT

Supervision in school social work presents many problems that are peculiar to that particular setting. Social work supervision differs from supervision as practiced in the field of education. The social worker in the school social work supervisor clarify her responsibilities in helping personnel. These and other aspects of the setting make it mandatory that the school is subject to certain administrative supervision from education workers through supervision. Dr. Smalley and Miss Carson have presented their thinking about the process of supervision and have shown how the process can be used in the school setting.

Many school social workers are faced with the problem of attempting to work in a large school where it is impossible to give adequate service through direct work with children. Miss Dobson explains in her article the way in which one worker developed a conference method of helping. The article shows that this method was effective in helping teachers to develop their ability to work more successfully with children presenting problems in school.

The value of a group experience such as camp to supplement the school social worker's casework with a child cannot be underestimated. It affords a means of consolidating the child's gains as he is experiencing new satisfactions at home, school and play. That all children cannot use camp constructively is as true as the fact that some children cannot gain satisfaction from their school experience. Who can use camp, preparing the child for camp, the use and meaning of camp to parent and child, what it is hoped the child may gain from a camp experience are discussed thoughtfully by Miss Mannix in "The Story Behind Camp". The use of camp as part of a treatment process is ideal. In smaller communities where the referral process is not so clearly defined, and where follow-up reports on the child are less easily available, this article places a challenge upon the school social worker to assume responsibility for discussion of the child with camp personnel, and to ask for a follow-up report for use and interpretation of the child's needs during the ensuing year. This article points up an often unused community resource—the group work and/or recreational facility to help the child in his social development if and when the child is ready to use a group constructively.

SOME ELEMENTS OF SUPERVISION IN SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK¹

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Supervision, conceived as a process requiring the use of a professional skill which can be taught and learned, is unique to social work and constitutes one of the contributions of our field to education for any of the professions. Recent discussion of professional education by representatives of Medicine, Law, Engineering, Business Administration, and the Ministry, at what has become known as the "Buck Hills Conference,"² reflected a general appreciation of the importance of clinical or field experience in professional education and of teaching through the case method. Yet no profession there represented had reached the point attained by social work in establishing the place of field instruction as a required part of the curriculum and in identifying the nature of the individual teaching method through which it could be made a profitable learning experience for the student. The clinical clerkship in medicine described by Dr. James Means,³ Professor of Clinical Medicine at Harvard, as the "piece de resistance" of the clinical training of the medical student, and characterized by him as "actually amounting to an apprenticeship", approaches the concept of supervision as used in social work only slightly since, in part, instruction is carried on in a group at the time of ward rounds, the responsibility of the attending physician is to tell and explain and to check what the clerk has done, the duration of the clerkship varying from one to three months on a service. Nor is there provision anywhere in medical education for teaching physicians *how to teach* medical students *through the clerkship*.

What is distinctive about the use of supervision in social work—to insure and improve qualitative service to clients—is the extent to which and the way in which it understands and uses the relationship between supervisor and supervisee as the vehicle for teaching, the way in which it

¹ Paper presented at NASSW meeting, April, 1950, held in connection with National Conference of Social Work, Atlantic City, N. J.

² *Education for Professional Responsibility*. A report of the Proceedings of the Inter-Professional Conference on Education for Professional Responsibility, Carnegie Press, Pittsburgh, 1948.

³ Means, James, M.D., "The Clinical Training of the Medical Student", *Education for Professional Responsibility*, Carnegie Press, Pittsburgh, 1948.

takes into account and uses the factor of time, and the fact that preparation for engaging in it is part of the curriculum of most professional social work schools.

It is quite natural that the development of a teaching method emphasizing the "Relationship" factor should occur in that profession whose primary service is the use of relationship either for the administering of certain services, or as a service in itself.

It was only after the *practice* of social casework⁴ had moved to an appreciation of how the relationship between social worker and client carried the real potential of help for the client—whatever the services being administered—that the same understanding came to be applied to the process of *supervision* in social casework.⁴

While the practice of social casework was concentrated on the *what* of the service being administered rather than on the *how* of its administering, so also was supervision concentrated on the *what* of the practice being taught, evaluated, or "checked" rather than on the *how* of that teaching process through the use of a relationship.

In its beginnings in social casework, supervision consisted of a more experienced worker taking responsibility for a less experienced worker, carrying a teaching function through showing him the "ropes" of the agency; sharing experience; telling, advising and suggesting while discharging the other aspects of any supervisory function through evaluating performance and through checking to insure that the assigned duties were faithfully discharged.

As social casework became more sophisticated in understanding how people are helped, leading the client's thinking about his problem as a basis for his coming to his own decision took the place of the advising and telling of the friendly visitor, and was reflected in the teaching aspect of supervision by the initiation of the practice of leading the student or worker's thinking as a way of helping him come to his own conclusions about his practice. The influence of psychiatric and specifically psychoanalytic thinking resulted in an awareness of the client's "feeling life", which could affect so strongly his intellectual processes, and there was a concomitant emphasis in practice on helping the client express not only

⁴ Throughout this paper, for purposes of clarity, I shall refer to implications in the practice of *social casework* for the practice of supervision in *social casework*. Much that will be said applies to the practice of any social work process (social group work, social intergroup work) and its implications for the practice of supervision in "social work".

his thoughts and ideas, but his feelings as well in relation to the problem he was experiencing and in relation to possible solutions to it. Through the use of a relationship to a person whose focus was on helping him come to a decision which felt right to him after a thorough experiencing of its full meaning to him as a thinking-feeling person, the client was helped to move forward in his problem solving in quite a different way from what was possible for him when he was told what to do, or when his thinking was led without regard to the point where that left him as a "whole person" whose feeling, willing and thinking were integrally related. The dynamic which enabled the client to explore and experience his thinking-feeling reactions to his problem and possible solutions to it through the use of agency service was his relationship to a worker whose acceptance of him and response to him furthered his use of himself.

Again supervision moved forward in social work, taking into account the feeling of the student or worker about the agency and service he was representing, the client he was serving, the kind of problem the client was experiencing, the supervisor whose help he was seeking to use. Workers and students helped in this way to know themselves, experience themselves against another person (their supervisor), put out their thoughts and feelings upon her, take back or take in her thoughts and feelings for their own use, were helped to give service to clients more effectively than when they were told or advised by their supervisors, or when their thinking was led through a process that was largely intellectual.

Dr. Virginia Robinson in her recent book "The Dynamics of Supervision Under Functional Controls"⁵ describes what happens in social casework in the following way:

"Only if something can happen in the casework process which enables an individual in need to shift his relation to the need object, to modify his ways of seeking and controlling it, to find a new relation to external resources, and to his own strength and weakness in himself, is there any real service—"⁵

and this something can happen only as the social caseworker is both sensitive to the needs of the client and able to find some detachment, some separation between himself and the client "that can enable the client to know and accept himself as different in relation to the need and will of that other. In this acceptance and use of difference lies the essential discipline of social casework as a profession."⁶

⁵ Robinson, Virginia—"The Dynamics of Supervision Under Functional Controls", University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1949, p. 13.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

So in supervision, as described by Dr. Robinson, and at this point with specific reference to supervision of students in a school of social work, it is at the point when the student in actual practice under supervision "discovers himself inadequate, perhaps even destructive, in the way he naturally uses himself with a client that he is able to make the choice that he wants to undergo change in himself through the use of supervision that will enable him to use himself helpfully."⁷

And the supervisor helps (as the worker helps the client) by being sensitive to the student and his feeling reactions and granting his right to them; at the same time she recognizes and maintains her difference and the educational requirements of the school as the student moves through his learning experience.

There remained in the development of social casework as a process one final stage characterized by an appreciation and use of time as a dynamic which can further help giving and help taking. Social caseworkers generally are at the beginning of understanding and using "time" in this way. But in the literature there is increasing reference to concern with helping a client get started, sustain and end something with the agency, and concentration on what is involved in using each "time point" in the relationship to further movement in what the client is able to do.

This recognition of the importance of time and movement in relationship and of the potentials for its use once again was reflected in the supervisory process and utilized, first, in supervision of students in schools of social work where time operates so obviously and dramatically in the necessarily fixed structure of semesters and academic years.

Dr. Robinson emphasizes the use of time in the supervisory process as a "new" in her own thinking since the writing of her first book on supervision. Her earlier definition of supervision had described it as "an educational process in which a person with a certain equipment of knowledge and skill takes responsibility for training a person with less equipment. In the field of social casework, this teaching process is carried by a succession of conference discussions between the supervisor and the student." Her new conception reflects a clarification of a time structure with a beginning, focus, and ending, and its utilization for the movement of a relationship process.

Dr. Robinson writes: "This difference between a 'succession of conference discussions and a time-structured process is crucial."⁸

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

I have said—perhaps all too briefly and not very clearly—several things: first, that there are parallels in the development of the process in social casework practice, and in the development of the process in the supervision of social casework; that as social casework has moved forward to a full comprehension and use of what can be in giving and taking help through the medium of a relationship and through a use of the factor of time, so supervision in social casework has undergone that same kind of movement and has become thereby increasingly effective in achieving its end.

It goes without saying that the development of social casework and of supervision is uneven throughout the profession as a whole. There are differences in concepts of the nature of the social casework process and of supervision for it at the same time that there is basic agreement on the broad objectives of both. I have described one concept of social casework and of supervision in social casework.

It seems important at this time to say that while I have been emphasizing "likenesses" in practice and in supervision in social casework and in the way development in the one process has been paralleled by development in the other, there are differences, too. Social casework as a process carries no function of checking and control to insure that a delegated job is done according to social agency requirements and no element of evaluation in the sense that it is used for the continuance of employee-employer relationships, promotion or dismissal in the case of the worker, or of progress in learning to insure continuance in school for the student.

It is with some of the special characteristics of supervision as *differentiated* from practice in social work that I should now like to speak. This difference has to do both with the nature of the responsibility carried, and the place where the activity is focused.

Just as there was some lag in recognizing and making full use of the *likeness* between social casework as a process and supervision as a process—with supervisors engaged in telling, advising and doing for workers or students after practice had moved beyond that point—so also has there sometimes been insufficient recognition of necessary and essential *difference* between the process of social casework practice and the process of supervision.

It is with the administrative and evaluatory aspects of supervision that supervisors on the whole have had most trouble both as field instructors in schools of social work and as supervisors in agencies. An interest in helping people has brought "supervisors" into social work in the first

place. It has been hard enough to discipline one's self to help clients in some way other than overindulging or "doing for" and to learn, while responding sensitively to an expression of client need, to hold to agency requirements for service, and to one's own difference, as a way of insuring both that agency purpose is realized and that clients have maximum opportunity for self-knowledge and development in their use of service.

It requires further self-discipline on the part of agency supervisors to maintain a helping, teaching relationship to staff, and at the same time to carry an administrative responsibility by representing agency requirements for working in a certain way: such as operating from defined policies, meeting deadlines for dictation, keeping appointments, functioning as part of a group with consideration for the time and convenience of others. Yet the assumption of such responsibility is necessary to insure a smooth running agency. It is necessary, too, to insure through supervision that policies and procedures are represented with sufficient uniformity that any client served by any agency worker can be assured of something similar in service offered, terms under which it is offered, method through which it is offered, for all the very unique way he will take and use that service.

It is easy to say, "But this worker is so sensitive and creative we can't expect him to meet what is required from the rest of the staff;" or "We will 'put up' with his failure to meet deadlines, keep dictation up to date, etc., as a price we pay for his superior contribution;" or "This worker is so upset; what would it do to him to hold him to requirements really necessary for efficient agency functioning. He might 'crack up'." Therein we fail as supervisors to discharge one aspect of our responsibility and so let down supporting community and clients by failing to insure a uniformity in standard of service required of us as a social agency. But we fail another way, too. We fail that prima donna or emotionally upset worker who never has a chance to organize himself in relation to what is required as a way of testing out for himself whether he can function as a member of a social agency staff or whether he might better leave the field which makes a kind of demand on him he cannot or will not meet. Nor can I really believe that this lack of self-organization and self-discipline in a worker can result in service to clients which helps them organize and use themselves comfortably and efficiently in the solution of their problems.

In discharging the evaluatory aspect of supervision, another pitfall presents itself. It is hard to "interrupt" a fostering activity of helping someone to do something in order to exercise a function which feels so

different. You are doing well, but are you doing well enough? How well in relation to a school requirement for progress in the case of students; or agency requirement for continuance, on the staffs; or promotion, in the case of workers?

While "evaluation" in one sense is part of every supervisory conference which helps student or worker to an awareness of what he is doing and how he is doing it, periodic evaluations at stated intervals are more total and feel so, and carry the further meaning of being used as a basis for action: to dismiss, retain, grade, or promote. Seeking to avoid this responsibility, supervisors have sometimes not evaluated frankly and honestly out of fear of "hurting" or producing a psychological explosion; or out of a feeling that by explaining the genesis of a student or worker's failure, they have eliminated the fact of failure. "Miss T has trouble with authority but then she never had a good relationship with her own father." Once again we fail to represent and require a quality of performance that will insure entrance into or continuance in the profession only to those persons who can represent it in a way that guarantees a certain quality of service to the public. Unless we are prepared to carry that responsibility, we cannot say we have a profession on which the public can depend and which it may, therefore, be expected to support. And once again we fail another way: we fail the students and workers being evaluated who never have an opportunity to come to grips with what the profession's requirements are, as a way of helping them work toward meeting those requirements or deciding to leave the profession. Most difficult of all, perhaps, in representing the administrative and evaluatory aspects of supervision, is the sense of difference from the worker which is inherent in being a supervisor and which must be maintained. It feels alienating; and out of guilt for it or loneliness in it, the supervisor may feel constrained to deny that it exists, or fail to use it for the discharging of her responsibility.

A further difference in supervision and practice is that focus shifts in supervision from client to student or worker. Often this is a difficult shift, and lapses are many as supervisors get lost in interest in clients and what is happening to them and fail to focus on the student or worker and his problem in serving the client. It is only as the supervisor keeps the focus on the student or worker and teaches through the use of her relationship to him that anything can happen in the worker which insures the kind of change in capacity to use himself which will affect not just how he operates in relation to this client, but in relation to all clients.

A danger in supervision, as great as ignoring the pertinence of worker's feelings as they influence his work, and failing to help him know and take responsibility for those feelings, lies in making psychiatric diagnoses of workers a basis for evaluation, dismissal or demotion. This destructive misuse of psychiatric understanding muddies the waters of professional responsibility for staff development and staff performance. We fail when we say this worker is compulsive, rigid, a dependent personality, and *therefore* should not be in social work. Supervisory responsibility is discharged: by substantiating, through evidence in performance, that a worker is or is not able to serve clients according to the standards of both the profession and the employing agency; by indicating to the worker ways in which performance must change to meet standards; by giving him help in effecting that change, and only after this process has been carried out by recommending dismissal as a result of conclusion that he cannot or will not change sufficiently to meet professional standards of performance.

I earlier identified the use of time in the supervisory process as the most recently come-by element in supervisory skill, just as it is the most recently come-by element in skill in the practice of social casework.

In a school of social work, as I suggested, the very structure of semesters and academic years helps supervisor and student to use time productively. We are learning how to help students make beginnings in the field, anticipating when the passage of time and their learning will bring them to various crises; how to help them utilize the endings of semesters; the first year, graduation, to make their own in a new way what they have done—as a springboard for a new beginning in the school or in an agency.

It is less easy to see how the dynamic of time can be used in the work situation where no "academic structure" helps us.

Too often supervision has continued endlessly and has come to be resisted or rendered fruitless, just as service to clients once was resisted or rendered fruitless when no end was envisioned by exhausted client or exhausting worker talking out the weary years together.

As supervisors appreciate the potential in the use of time, it should be possible to make its use more conscious. Workers will be helped through supervision to begin in a new setting which recognizes the problem newness can create for them. There will be common practice of fixing a time—one year, two years—when relationship to a given supervisor

may be expected to have exhausted its potential for a worker's growth, and if feasible transfer to another supervisor will be made. It will be possible to recognize when a worker has attained a kind of responsibility and expertness in practice which calls for something different in the way of supervision for him. A time will be set within agencies when workers will be expected to use supervision in a different way, and when supervision will be given in a different way from what is right and helpful for beginning, inexperienced workers. Supervision at that time point in a worker's development will involve something additional in the way of initiative on the part of the worker for seeking help and for identifying problems on which help is needed—perhaps something less frequent than the usual weekly conference for inexperienced workers. Yet there will need to be sufficient continuity in relation to some member of the agency staff: administrative control of service, reliable base for evaluation, and, for the worker, opportunity to work on improving skill—a task never completely achieved for the professional person. Much of this change in supervisory pattern in relation to time in agency is already agency practice. What can be new is setting it down as agency policy and use of it to help workers move over a fixed time period to a point where they will be ready for a different kind of relationship to supervision which is anticipated for them and required of them if they are to stay in the agency. Occasions of transfer from one service or department to another, the taking on of new responsibilities, and the endings and beginnings implicit in them, can be used to inject something sufficiently different into worker job to supply a challenge to development and to permit the utilization of the time factor to stimulate movement.

In other words, there will be a continuing use of supervision to accomplish its traditional purposes of teaching, of evaluating, and of insuring effective administration of service; but the kind of responsibility taken for developing skill will be related to what the worker's skill is, his newness to agency or service, and will change in relation to the place where he is and should be over a period of time in the agency.

Supervision, then, is a process in social work, recognized as such by the profession, having likeness and difference from the practice skill it seeks to develop and evaluate. Schools of social work appreciate it as a basic process in social work education and take the responsibility in class and increasingly in field teaching to develop it in a way that is characteristic of no other profession. Agencies make use of it as a way of insuring quality of service. It is liable to certain misuses, requiring as it does a new focus and certain differences in objectives and responsibility taken

from that which is required of the social work practitioner. As it seeks to make full use of a relationship between two people in accomplishing its purpose, it needs to beware on the one hand of taking responsibility for personality change appropriate to therapy and unrelated to the specific requirements of a specific job; and on the other hand of ignoring or minimizing the factor of relationship and the way it may be used by supervisor and supervisee for the kind of supervisee growth and development which is one of its purposes. It is at the beginning of understanding and making use of the dynamic in time, as it operates for students in school and staff in agency.

What are some of its special responsibilities in a social work service within a public school system?

It is here that I anticipate Miss Carson will be making application of some elements in supervising as I have developed them or as she may wish to develop them in quite a different way, to a setting in which she is currently very much at home.

I would anticipate that there could be a problem in carrying on a kind of supervision, different in nature from supervision as understood and used in the host agency itself—the public school. Superintendent, principals, and classroom teachers struggling to relate to the service the school social worker offers children and parents, so different from their educational service, need to relate as well to a supervisory process, through which that service is developed and controlled, which is quite different from the supervisory process which develops and controls their own activities.

I would anticipate that there could be a special task for supervision in school social work in helping social workers new to that setting come to grips with what for them is problem in functioning as social workers within a school system. What do social workers need help in doing with themselves in order to be able to represent the public school as essentially right and good for their clients, and to utilize their social casework skill and all that is in school structure and policy to help children and their parents use that great American institution in a way that is creative for them and socially good as well? Old and current attitudes toward school and teachers, toward the kind of authority they represent may need to be examined and re-experienced with the supervisor until the worker is free to use helpfully a function he may resist or with which he may so overidentify that he fails to see what, in it, a child or parent could resist. Because children are his primary clients, he may need help in examining

and experiencing his feelings toward children and sufficiently resolving attitudes of belittling, spoiling, correcting or teaching them, that he can be their social worker with real respect for their personalities and potentialities. His work with parents may evoke old attitudes and orientations which need his full knowledge and acceptance if he is going to take responsibility for their modification or control so that he may be truly helpful.

His very use of social casework skill as "enabling" in character is subject to distortion as it is practiced in a setting whose purpose is teaching and a part of whose long tradition is the imposing of social controls. How shall he be helped through supervision to keep his identity and unique skill as a social caseworker while relating to and representing the school and its purpose? How shall he be helped to function as a member of a professional group with real respect for the contribution of others toward the accomplishment of the school's over-all purpose, and with real capacity to relate what he does to what others are doing toward an end shared by all?

I could anticipate that social work supervision within a public school might need to help school social workers live with the frustrations and inconveniences of practicing without some of the supporting structure possible within a social agency setting but not available in a host setting whose own different purpose does not envision nor readily admit the need of the social worker for private interviewing space, a telephone, dictation time and facilities, freedom to attend conferences.

In short, and in conclusion, I am suggesting that supervision of social workers within a school system has a special and challenging task in relation to the specifics of that setting, at the same time that it carries its responsibility for the development of supervision as a process in social work requiring for its wisest and most creative use: wisdom and skill, discipline and integrity, dedication to responsible, professional performance.

Discussion of Dr. Smalley's Paper on SOME ELEMENTS OF SUPERVISION IN SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK¹

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It seems obvious from Dr. Smalley's paper that one cannot discuss supervision in school social work without becoming involved in a discussion of that which is basic for the supervision of student or worker in any field of social casework, whether it be child placing, medical social work, family service, or school social work, with which we are primarily concerned at this meeting. In my own thinking, the reason for this lies in the fact that supervision in school social work is no different in its fundamental elements from supervision in any field of social work. Therefore, I should like to comment first on that portion of Dr. Smalley's paper that pertains to these elements, but draw, for illustration, on my recent supervisory experience which has been in the area of school social work.

During the past eight years I have supervised approximately ninety different workers, more than two-thirds of whom were entering the field of school social work when we had our first contact. They included successful classroom teachers who are changing their role in school from that of teacher to social worker, students from a school of social work, and workers with graduate social work training and experience in other fields of social work. While these workers have varied background and experience, they come to the supervisor with one thing in common—the need to find their role as a social worker in a public elementary school. We could undoubtedly say the same thing for new workers entering any agency if we substituted for "public school" the name of a particular agency. If the supervisor is to help the worker attain competency in a particular job, we know that the supervisor himself must have an identity with his agency (whatever that agency is), its purpose, policies, rules, regulations, and so on.

But important as this is, it is not enough. As Dr. Smalley has pointed out, we have learned that "telling" or "leading" does not insure

¹ Paper read at NASSW meeting, April, 1950, held in connection with National Conference of Social Work, Atlantic City, N. J.

the acquisition of skill on the part of the worker any more than it insures the movement of a client toward handling his problem. The supervisor has the problem of keeping his focus on the worker's feeling in relation to this experience of learning a new job. We know that resistance to change is universal and that the supervisory experience is a deep and meaningful one for the worker who tries to make use of it. Actually, in asking the worker to find his relationship to an agency which he must represent, we are asking him to deal with one of the fundamental problems of living—namely, how the individual finds his place in a larger whole, and how he can maintain some balance in it. It seems inevitable that there be struggle.

Illustrations of how the worker presents his own resistance to the learning situation are many. Perhaps it will suffice to mention lateness of the worker for appointments with his supervisor, his problem of providing material for conferences, or of providing it on time as but a few of the ways a worker has of letting his supervisor know of his fear and concern about yielding to this experience. And unless the supervisor can recognize these signals and tackle them with the worker, there can be little movement. I can present to the worker the requirement of case material which should reach me a certain length of time before our conferences and hold firm to that. I can also, though, expect continued failure on the part of the worker in meeting this requirement or rebellion as evidenced in some other way unless I can help him to look at his feelings in relation to this—his concern about risking himself, his fear of loss of control, and so on. The supervisor may feel some comfort in the fact that the worker does have a choice. There is no reason in the world why the worker has to make use of this experience—*unless* he wants to attain full field work credit, *unless* he wants to remain as a worker in the agency, in short, *unless* he wants to become a competent, professional social worker. Can the worker who is trying to help a child full of rebellion toward certain limits set up in classroom or school gain anything through a supervisor's recognition of the worker's own rebellion about the arbitrariness of the number of conferences set for him or of the limit in time to each conference period itself? I have conviction that not only can it be of help but it is that which contributes so greatly to the movement of the worker in helping his clients. Perhaps those of you who are not now supervising can best understand this through an illustration from casework practice. You may present to a child the school regulations about attendance, but it is only as you help him to become more conscious of his feelings about coming to school (whether it be feelings of inadequacy in school work, feelings around his relationship at home, or one of the many others) that he can begin to work toward a solution of his problem.

As Dr. Smalley has pointed out, it is not easy for the supervisor to keep his focus on the worker in relation to learning. The supervisor who is closely identified with the agency has a feeling of responsibility for service to the client. Only deep conviction about the validity of this way of working to bring about the skill which will result, ultimately, in sound service to clients (not just one client) can give the supervisor strength to stick with the worker as the worker strives to attain skill. It is only as the worker, with the help of his supervisor, becomes aware of feelings involved in his own taking of help from the supervisor, that he can begin to be aware of that with which his clients come to him.

Dr. Smalley has mentioned as a specific responsibility of the school social work supervisor "the task of helping social workers new to the setting come to grips with what for them is problem in functioning as school social workers within a school system". Every agency has its specifics which the worker new to the agency must learn and come to terms with. School social work is no exception to this, but, for me, the fundamental process of supervision remains the same, irrespective of agency. Stated in its barest outline, the supervisor's job is to help the worker learn what the services of the agency are and how he (the worker) can offer these services for the utmost benefit of the client. Each agency has its definition of its service, its rules and regulations under which this service can be offered, and its problems for the worker about all of this. For example, the worker new to a child-placing agency will need to examine his attitudes toward parents who ask for placement for their children, and toward children themselves, before he can help both parent and child make constructive use of the service the agency has to offer. So it is too, with the worker coming into the field of school social work. He will need to consider his attitudes in relation to every phase of the job—his feeling about children, about public schools, about teachers, about the authority of the public school, about his difference from others in the school, and so on.

Although I have illustrated mainly from the field of school social work, all that I have said up to this point would be just as true for supervision in any area. I should now like to talk specifically about supervision in school social work. Every worker has struggled in earlier years with the problem of authority in school, and now he meets clients who are doing the same. This gives the worker an identity with his client (the pupil) quite unlike that for the worker in any other agency, for it is doubtful if many workers have had the experience of placement in a foster home, or of help from a child guidance clinic or a family service

agency. It is obvious that the supervisor must be sensitive to what is in this for the worker—to whether the worker is so identified with the pupil that he fails to find the separation necessary to his role as helper, to whether he assumes the pupil's experience was like his own and so on.

One element seems unique to school social work and proves a valuable aid in supervision. That is the clear parallel between the worker's own present learning situation and that of his client, who is also having the problem in making use of the educational facilities at his command. Both worker and client are struggling with the problems surrounding the use of any learning experience. As the worker tackles his own feelings about making use of supervision, he becomes more aware of his client's problem in making use of school, and thus is better able to help his clients.

One can see the problem for the worker of being both learner and helper at one and the same time. This is particularly difficult when the worker enters a school that has never had the services of a school social worker. I mention this not only because it is true for the majority of workers in my own agency, but also, since school social work is an expanding service, it must be true in other places. While administration can carry some of the responsibility for interpretation of the service, the worker, in his day-by-day contacts, carries the major role in helping those with whom he is working (children, parents, teachers, principal, and other school personnel) learn what his job is and how they may make the best use of him. We find that the worker leans heavily for support on the supervisor who represents the job. My own experience has convinced me that the supervisor can be most useful in this area through helping the worker use the supervisory experience to the fullest for finding his role as school social worker and for acquiring the skill necessary to the job. The worker's own clarity and conviction which enable him to operate in a helpful way, recognizable by client and school alike, are the best interpreters of the service.

I should like to comment briefly on Dr. Smalley's discussion of the difficult task for supervisors in carrying out administrative and evaluatory aspects of the job. This is hard enough when the supervisor carries direct responsibility for job performance as well as for professional development of workers; but it is even more difficult, perhaps, as in my own situation, to find and use the dynamics for growth when a worker is administratively responsible to the principal of the school he serves. Even when the supervisor's evaluation does not determine job continuance or dismissal, the supervisor has a responsibility to both worker and client

to help the worker use all that is in him. Only then can the supervisor feel that he is working toward the attainment of the highest degree of service for clients. While it takes strength and security in knowing one's job as supervisor, discussion with a worker of his lack of satisfactory performance or progress does provide stimulation for the worker's growth. If the supervisor is to fulfill his role as supervisor, and if he cares at all about agency service, he must take this kind of responsibility.

A closely related problem is that of introducing newness for workers who remain in the same job over a period of many years when the workers are many and the supervisors few. In addition to a tradition of remaining in a single (large city) school system with its tenure and retirement provisions, our own situation has been complicated by the fact that workers have been unable to transfer to different schools in the same system because of lack of personnel to fill vacancies. Change of supervisor, difference in amount of required conference time, and the spacing of this time have been devices that we have used; but it is an ever present problem in our own agency.

Finally, I should like to comment on the problem Dr. Smalley mentions of providing, in a public school set-up, for the very kind of supervision we have been discussing—"a kind of supervision different in nature from supervision as understood and used in the host agency itself—the public school". This calls for conviction on the part of administrators of the social work service and a trust on the part of education administrators in what the social workers are offering and their way of offering it. With all of his resistance to the supervisory situation, the worker, too, can recognize his need for help in the job—help of a kind that is different from that which his principal or any other member of the supervisory staff for teachers can give. In our beginnings, requests from many workers for additional time from the supervisor provided impetus for different administrative planning. It is true that supervision conceived of in terms of weekly or twice weekly conferences for beginning workers is not a reality in our agency (except for students from a school of social work). Of necessity, we have experimented with a kind of supervision that was less frequent from that with which most of you are acquainted, but, I may assure you, for the majority of workers, no less intense. Let me hasten to state that this is not ideal, but I can attest to the fact that there is growth and learning when supervisor and beginning worker are seeing each other for as few as six to eight one-hour conferences in a semester. One important factor in this is administrative support for a structure (set number of conferences, place, time period, requirement of case mate-

rial, and so on) which is known to both supervisor and worker and stays firm for them as they work together. Perhaps in no other agency is it any easier to make use of a natural time structure—that of the public school year, which has not only a beginning and ending of a term, but an ending of an entire school year (in most places, two terms) with a uniform vacation break for all (workers and clients alike) before the beginning of a new school year.

I should like to say with conviction based on these eight years of experience that, while far from ideal, supervision less intensive in point of amount of conference time (but not, I would like to emphasize, in any other respect) than that usually thought of in social work can not only be helpful but can also provide an experience necessary for the acquiring of skill in the job. And as long as I occasionally hear comments from a few school principals to the effect that even the more experienced, mature workers should have more conferences with their supervisors than we are able to provide at this point, I shall continue to feel hopeful of increased understanding on the part of school administrators of the value of this kind of service and its contribution to the welfare of the client.

THE INTEGRATION OF VISITING TEACHER SERVICE IN A HIGH SCHOOL

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How can the visiting teacher (school social worker), giving one-day-a-week service to a large, modern high school, use her time most advantageously for both faculty and students? Exchanging information and effectively coordinating the help of classroom teachers for various students referred for casework service presents a difficult administrative problem in a high school. How could teachers interested in Helen Wilson meet to share information about this girl and plan together to help her? The counselors as well as the visiting teacher needed to know what was happening to Helen in the classroom, how they could help the teachers and the student best and what special services needed to be brought to Helen to assist in the solution of her behavior problem. In order to meet this problem, the counselors, administrative staff and visiting teacher at Roosevelt High School developed a case conference which has evolved, in a five year period, into a counselor-teacher centered conference as a regular part of the counseling and guidance program. Approximately twenty conferences a year have been held.

Roosevelt High School has had an average of 1,450 students, approximately 55 teachers and eight counselors. A man and woman counselor, who are part-time teacher-counselors, are provided for each grade in the school and each works with boys and girls. Special services provided for the school include attendance officer, nurse, physician, psychologist, remedial teachers and the visiting teacher. One of the vice-principals is in charge of the counseling program and is the source of referral of all cases to the visiting teacher.

Development of Case Conference Method

Some preliminary work, which served as background for this project, had been done by the visiting teacher and the administrators of Roosevelt High School in introducing the case conference method to the faculty. Since the visiting teacher in this school was trained and experienced in casework, in the beginning, the most disturbed and troublesome children were referred. Gradually, in order to use the counselor, the

teacher and other specialists in the school, the visiting teacher as need arose called informal case conferences composed of this staff. These dealt with cases with which the visiting teacher had worked and for which she had taken the entire responsibility, except as teachers and counselors could contribute information needed in diagnosis and treatment. At that time the school had no psychiatrist, so services of a community child guidance clinic were utilized by the visiting teacher when it was decided that students were in need of psychiatric help. In this early period the behavior and personality problem of students referred were of such nature that they needed intensive treatment.

Fairly typical of the type of case discussed in conference was Marie, a fifteen-year-old high school sophomore, referred to the visiting teacher because she had run away from home and was also truant from school. The girl was shy, withdrawn and felt rejected at home because her mother had always given more attention to the older girl and twins just younger than Marie. Although Marie was highly intelligent, she was failing in schoolwork. The visiting teacher carried the case for a year, provided an accepting atmosphere in which the girl could talk frankly of the home and school problems which were upsetting her. Her needs were periodically interpreted to the teachers and they in turn helped by giving information about her adjustment at school and by creating situations in the classroom which relieved pressure on the girl and afforded her opportunities to develop poise and confidence. As she gained insight during the casework interviews into the causes of her problems, Marie became quite competent in handling and controlling her feelings. Her adjustment at school rapidly improved. The visiting teacher worked with the mother and gained her assistance in helping the girl at home. She was helped secure a carefully selected part-time job; this assisted the girl in getting experience which she wished and needed later to become a nursery school teacher.¹

During the initiation of these conferences the visiting teacher spent considerable time interpreting her program and method of work: who should be referred and how she could best help students and school personnel. It was a period of great learning for the visiting teacher because she had opportunity to become acquainted with teachers as well as counselors, and to learn much about the school and the potentials of teachers as resource persons. The faculty came to know the visiting teacher as an individual and as a professional person.

¹ No student is ever present at case conferences.

At the same time the case conference concerned with understanding and planning for the individual child was developing, an "intake" committee came into being. All referrals to the visiting teacher were reviewed by this committee composed of counselor, visiting teacher, and vice-principal in charge of counseling. Together they decided where the main responsibility for helping a given child would rest—whether with the counselor, visiting teacher, or classroom teacher, and the role each would play in dealing with the student. This study at referral helped to bring the most immediately useful service to the child.

The few counselors who had participated in the informal case conferences found them so valuable, a formal request was made by other counselors and the administrative staff that these be held regularly and include all counselors. Cases discussed during the second year continued to be initiated by the visiting teacher and, although all counselors were present, the responsibility for plans, etc., centered primarily with the visiting teacher, the counselor and the classroom teacher presenting material about the student in the conference. Since all counselors were present, the visiting teacher attempted to select for presentation cases containing general material which would be of interest and instructional value for the entire group from which questions and discussion were elicited.

Jim, sixteen-year-old high school Junior, was referred because of failing schoolwork and hostile attitude toward teachers. The boy was intelligent and his psychological condition was basically healthy. This case was used successfully in interpreting the normal reactions of an intelligent adolescent to a difficult environmental situation.

Jim's parents were divorced. He was angry toward both of them because the home had been broken up. His hostility towards teachers was a transference of his feelings about his home situation. As the teachers understood this their attitude toward the boy became more accepting. Jim's mother was a poor housekeeper. This embarrassed him and he refused to have his friends visit his home. It was pointed out to the teachers that all adolescents like to take pride in their homes and wish their environment to be as attractive as those of their friends. Jim complained that he had "no manners" and commented that children do not learn manners when parents fight all the time as his parents did.

At school he was considered girl crazy but to the visiting teacher he complained that he did not know how to act with the girls. An interpretation to the teachers of the boy's confusion regarding his relationship with his parents and his disappointment in them with its resultant con-

fusion in his relations toward the opposite sex was helpful in gaining the teachers' encouragement of the boy in social activities where he could develop more poise. Within a few months Jim lost his aggressive and belligerent attitudes, became an excellent school citizen and graduated with good grades.

The following year the counselors decided that a psychiatrist would be helpful in the case conferences by providing further interpretation of students' problems as well as additional material on mental hygiene. From time to time psychiatrists participated in the case conferences as consultants although not on a regular schedule.

One psychiatrist helped the group see some of the general implication of Ed's behavior. He was a seventeen-year-old intelligent junior who had a serious reading difficulty, was failing in all subjects and was frequently truant. He had had trouble in school from the time he entered the first grade. His parents were divorced and the mother was very inadequate. She took the boy frequently to night clubs with her and expected him on the one hand to act like an adult and on the other to assume the role of a small, dependent child. The psychiatrist used this case successfully to interpret how a child's home condition was reflected at school.

In order to help the boy overcome his reading difficulty it was necessary for him to form a very close relationship with the remedial reading teacher. It was recognized that the child who could not read could also be expected to fail other subjects requiring his knowledge of reading. There was considerable discussion of the various causes of learning difficulties especially the emotional. Ed was strong physically and was interested in sports so the coach was encouraged to take a personal interest in him and he won considerable recognition at school in athletics. As the boy gained the feeling that all teachers were interested in him as an individual and liked him even though he could not keep up academically, he gained confidence in himself and his schoolwork improved.

Use of the Psychiatrist

Both counselors and teachers had become aware of the value of the team approach in dealing with socially and emotionally disturbed children and wished continuous help from a psychiatrist. The next year through the generosity of the State Health Officer and the Director of the Mental Hygiene Division of the State Board of Health, Roosevelt High School obtained services of a psychiatrist for a half day a week.

The counselors at this time, with some assistance from the psychiatrist and the visiting teacher, assumed responsibility for case presentation at the conferences. Henceforth, both the psychiatrist and visiting teacher were used chiefly as consultants and in only a few instances were the students known to either, prior to presentation at the case conferences.

The counseling staff of Roosevelt made various use of the psychiatrist. Following a referral conference, certain students were referred to the psychiatrist for individual therapy. He saw approximately four or five students continuously throughout the year because of the seriousness and extent of their personality problems. Others were carried for shorter periods of time, depending upon the services required. Some were referred for diagnosis and referral to other agencies, or were referred back to the visiting teacher for treatment. During the year fourteen students were seen individually by the psychiatrist; eighty-five interviews were involved in this service.

He was also available to individual counselors and to a few teachers for discussion of special types of cases. These included learning problems and unusually baffling social behavior. He was invited by a senior class on two occasions to discuss mental hygiene and personality development.

During this particular year, however, the psychiatrist's chief contribution was his use as a consultant in the weekly case conferences. The counselors presented the cases and conducted the conferences. Those invited included the teachers concerned with the student under discussion, various specialists including remedial reading teacher, attendance officer, nurse, visiting teacher and the administrative staff of the school, including the principal. The visiting teacher also continued to function as a consultant at the conferences.

During the next year, because of a change in the schedule of the psychiatrist, he gave only half day service every four weeks. He saw no children individually but acted as a consultant with the visiting teacher at the case conferences. At this point a new phase of development occurred. Both counselors and teachers were eager to have follow-up conferences to determine whether or not plans of treatment were achieving results. They had moved from getting and giving of information to a responsible role in the treatment process. During the past year except for very occasional visits of a psychiatrist, the counselors and teachers have carried the conferences, continuing to use the visiting teacher as consultant. Few cases presented now are previously known to the visiting teacher.

Evaluation

At the end of the first year, during which the psychiatrist came regularly to the school, a questionnaire was given to those who had participated in the program. Thirty-five classroom teachers and nine teacher-counselors, in addition to special service personnel and administrators, attended the conferences. These were fifty minutes in length and the school program was so organized that teachers were excused from classroom work during the conference period. Forty-two of the forty-six teacher participants responded.

The questionnaire showed that

86% had gained in the understanding of what "makes children tick".

83% had received definite help in understanding particular children.

88% had found the conference method definitely profitable to them.

100% had gained knowledge through conferences of how to work with students other than the particular one presented.

Part of the questionnaire contained general comments. These included more follow-up on the progress made by different youngsters; i. e., testing whether or not treatment was successful. Some stated they had learned and organized a great deal of material in a short period of time which was helpful to them in understanding a student and his classroom behavior. A few complained that they had not been invited to enough conferences. This was particularly true of the classroom teacher. Others indicated they had learned more about their own and other counselor's behavior and were, therefore, more able to help. As one stated, "Having gained in understanding I have become more sympathetic and tolerant and hence better able to help students".

Summary

In the program at Roosevelt High School an interesting evolution in teacher understanding and interest occurred. During the first three years, as stated above, the visiting teacher assumed most of the responsibility for organizing the case conferences by selecting cases to be presented, making the study and carrying the major portion of treatment. As counselors and teachers became more sensitive to the needs of the students and more aware of their own potentialities, they did case selection

and presentation, using the specialist as consultant. This we felt was an evidence of growth on the part of the teachers which should be one of the goals of casework service in any school. In reviewing types of cases presented, there was a change from interest in the most disturbed and disturbing student in the classroom to the student whose problems were in their beginning stages—prevention rather than cure became important.

In addition to the information obtained in the questionnaire, other values emerged. The conference method has enabled the school through a relatively simple administrative device to bring together a great deal of valuable information about an individual student and to plan together how to help him. Teachers, counselors and administrative staff have pooled their efforts and worked more closely together on a common project. Bringing various groups in a large school into a closer relationship has seemed to improve morale. The project had definite in-service training value for teachers and counselors, as they moved from dependence on the visiting teacher and psychiatrist for selection and discussion of cases, to the assumption of complete responsibility themselves for selection and presentation of case material as well as follow-up on the success of treatment.

This method enabled the visiting teacher to interpret the various phases of her work to a larger group of teachers than she could have reached by any other method. She became acquainted with the strengths and potentialities of both teachers and counselors and through their help learned about the school and how to adapt her methods to its needs. As a consultant the visiting teacher was able to extend help to a larger number of students than would otherwise have been possible. Excellent leadership from the administrative staff at Roosevelt has demonstrated the school's interest in helping students grow to be happy, well-adjusted adults. Because of this it has been possible to stimulate both counselors and classroom teachers to continue to study the causations of behavior and the ways of helping not only the emotionally and socially disturbed pupil but all students in their classrooms.

THE STORY BEHIND CAMP

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Summertime and Camp! A train filled with shouting, laughing children bubbling with excitement and making plans for various forms of activities at camp—and a conductor who wishes that he were stone deaf (but won't be until tomorrow)! In the midst of the noisy children is usually the quiet one, the shy one, the frightened child facing a new experience. And as the train departs mother feels relief that the packing is over and Jimmy is off the hot pavements of the city for a time. Perhaps she feels anxious particularly if this is the child's first venture away from home. There are myriads of thoughts and emotions in Jimmy and in the adults who helped to plan his vacation in camp—all united in the hope that he will be happy and will benefit by the experience.

Making Plans

Some of the children, such as the frightened child pictured above, will need extra help at camp in order to adjust, and this encouragement and assistance will be offered to them. This is one aspect of the months of preparation initiated when parents reached a decision, with the child's help, on the important question, "Should Johnny or Susie go to camp?"

Since 1937, the Bureau of Child Guidance has shared this question—with all of its network of associated problems—with a large number of parents and children known to the agency. The goal was always the same—helping the individual child to grow physically, emotionally, educationally. Based on the knowledge of the child, his needs, background, personality, the consideration was, "What can camp life offer to Johnny and Susie?" This article reveals the *Behind the Scene Picture* of planning for camp for the child who needs helps in adjusting in school, at home, in camp.

Sixty Years Ago

Deciding on camp is not a modern-time perplexity, since great grandfather pondered over this problem, too. Some sixty years ago, camp for grandfather meant the release from crowded cities to the open spaces, where hopefully in the home of a country squire, children would become

physically strong. Thus, in 1877, the Tribune Fresh Air Fund was initiated and set the stage for *Time*; *Life*; the *Association for Improving the Conditions of the Poor*, and the *Henry Street Settlement* camp programs.

As time passed, camp life progressed and a refinement process brought improvement with the years. Perhaps grandfather was happy to go away for two weeks—although the sanitary conditions were poor and diet had no real meaning. And, grandfather's leadership qualities would lie dormant if initiative were to come as a result of planning a program at such a camp. The hoped-for benefit was to help the child build a sturdy body. However, many times he may have returned home weak, worn out, unhappy. At any rate, some lack propelled an investigation of camps, and the Charity Organization Society set up a survey for this purpose. Life Camp, organized originally in 1887, was one of the pioneers in extending the length of time for campers from two to three weeks and in keeping record cards.

Father's Camp

Grandfather went to camp to be "built up." Father was sent for more specific reasons. Grandfather selected for his son a camp with higher standards and more definite purpose. Perhaps a YMCA Camp devoted to the building of Christian standards. Or, mindful of the rigors demanded in combat during World War I, grandfather may have chosen a military training camp.

Father's camp had a program which was planned by the adult and characterized by rigid adherence to routine. It may not have been challenging nor stimulating enough, but father's experience was paving the way for a broadening of the scope of camp. The fields of psychology, sociology, progressive education and mental hygiene showed their influence, and the recreational aim of camp was joined by the goal of education. "Learning through Living" was the motto, and through participation in a setting geared to develop good ideals and habits, it was hoped that the child would show courage, cooperation, sociability and resourcefulness. A far cry from grandfather's camp life!

Today's Camp

Camp today is attuned to the individual child's need. Many agencies have their own camps which are used as treatment resources to help

the "problem child". Today, father, mother, social worker, teacher, doctor—all persons interested in their welfare will think of Laura or Dicky as young people with their individual ideas, opinions and desires which are worthy of respect. The educational approach has been supplemented by the casework approach in many camps. Camp personnel are carefully selected and are trained in the understanding of children. Experience in sports, arts and crafts is not sufficient qualification for a counsellor who lives with the children and should be sensitive to their needs.

Preparation for Camp

The camp setting where the child may spend some weeks during the summer offers a great deal to the child who can benefit by group living and experience. Effective camp placement must be preceded by careful preparation—of the child, of the parents, of the camp personnel. Sometimes, all of the carefully laid groundwork to make the child ready for the fullest camp experience, may evaporate into thin air by the angry parent who constantly threatens to send the child away from home. Too late, mother realizes that "Joel is going to camp" sounds much less threatening than "We're sending Joel away to camp". Mother may need help because of the tug at her heart which depresses her when she thinks of Clara's leaving her for the first time. Father may root for Martin to win the pennant this year because the boy next door won it the year before, and thus an out-of-reach goal may worry Martin and detract from what might have been a successful camp season.

Parents, using deprivation as a means of punishing the child, may tell him that he cannot go to camp if he misbehaves. The continual voicing of this threat may unnerve the child and remove for him the joy of anticipation so that he may arrive at camp half-heartened and feeling guilty. The mother who has encouraged dependency in her child needs help in permitting the child to break away from her and in trying to give him strength to unleash the spirit of independence. In addition to countless other problems faced by mother and father before camp preparation has been completed, there is the question of finances for many parents. Even if scholarships are obtained, clothing, carfare and spending money may challenge the keeper of the most careful budgets at times.

Telling the Child

Just as parents are helped to plan for their child's camp life, children who attend camp often miss all likely benefits if they are just "packed off"

without provision for the exploration of their fears and the answering of the multiple questions which children usually have. Interviews with the social worker who knows the child are focussed around this area when it is made known to the worker that the parent is considering camp. Or, the Bureau social worker may suggest camp to the parent after an evaluation of the problem of the child who is under treatment. The child also sees the camp worker, who provides a practical link to the mystery of camp, since the camp worker has visited the camp which he represents and can portray a very realistic picture for the child.

How to talk with the child about camp is answered by the knowledge of what the child is like and how he or she reacts to life situations in general. Maybel may feel that mother and daddy prefer baby brother, so they are getting rid of her. She cannot express her feelings, but becomes listless, loses her appetite, and has nightmares as summer approaches. Failure to detect the signs of anxiety and to trace them to their source may be detrimental to the physical health of the child, to say nothing of the emotional strain to which the child is subjected. The problem of Maybel is not uncommon. And, in addition, there is the shy child who does not make friends easily, the panicky child who fears the dark, the enuretic child who might be subject to ridicule, the child who is really being sent to camp in order to give the family some peace!

These, and many other children, might benefit from camp placement or might react to it as a destructive experience, depending, to a great extent upon the individual child's personality, the preparation given for camp and the type of camp selected.

Preparation of Camp

Now that the parents and child are prepared for a temporary separation, the carefully selected camp goes in for a period of readiness. When the application blank has been submitted, the Bureau of Child Guidance worker shares with the camp worker the knowledge of the type of child who is coming to camp, the particular problem which the child has presented in the past and is presenting at the time of camp discussion, and perhaps some anticipation of how the child may react when separated from home. Thus, the camp counsellor is better equipped to cope with difficulties which may arise.

Camp Counsellors and the Bureau of Child Guidance Camp Worker pool their knowledge since so much can be learned about the child's feel-

ings, attitudes and needs before and after he is separated from home. The answer may often be found to such questions as whether the child's behavior problem is aggravated by mother or father, by environmental factors, whether the parents refuse to permit their children to mature, and whether mother's threat to "run away and abandon the family" because of Arthur's behavior is a justified one. The goodbye at the station is so often a barometer, and so much may be gleaned by the expression on the child's face, the attitude of the parent, the little pat on the back, the tear brushed hastily away, the straightened shoulders of the little boy determined to be brave, or the type and length of the last minute instructions.

Arming the camp with knowledge is particularly important in planning for the emotionally disturbed child. Such a child may or may not be able to use the stabilizing environment of camp and here, often, camp is tried with the social worker's sometimes feeling a little apprehensive about whether the desired goal will be met. Will camp life help *this* child? Such a child was George.

At eleven, George was the school "bully"—always fighting in the classroom, showing uncontrolled behavior in school. George's father was very domineering and refused to permit a physical examination which had been recommended for the boy. George's mother was rejecting and showed a preference for George's twin sister, who was the brighter of the two. George was sent to camp for a month. He was domineering, oversensitive, irritable, destructive, and had severe temper tantrums during which he threw anything within reach at his fellow campers. However, George did respond to people whom he liked, and after the first several days of experimenting on how severe a problem he could present to the camp counsellor, he settled down. Gradually, he began to accept responsibility in carrying out camp chores, in participating in the camp recreational program, and he showed skill in wood carving, and a swimming ability. The considerate treatment at camp showed that he could be mature and responsive in an environment which was at variance with his cold, strict home setting.

Often, the child is more ready than the parent and finds that living in a group where he can be free of the thousand and one rules, regulations, orders and over-protective, maternal smothering to which he has been subjected, is a welcome relief.

Adele, for example, is only eight, but is nervous and fearful,

and children take advantage of her because of her timidity. She is immature, lacks self-confidence, needs love and affection. She is the youngest of three children. Her father died before her birth, and she was placed in an institution for a few years. Now that she is home, she is over-dependent and clings to mother. Adele is under treatment, and the psychiatrist suggested a satisfying, pleasant experience away from home to help Adele gain some independence. A camp scholarship was arranged, and Adele was described as a "likable, friendly child" who profited from the experience and for whom camp is to be hoped for again this year. For Adele, it was important that this second separation from home be characterized by strong feelings of security and emotional acceptance by mother, while simultaneously encouraging independent qualities, the roots of which existed in the child but had lacked nourishment.

Achieving camp goals is not always possible, particularly when a too close dependency of child on mother is involved and is encouraged by the mother. Sometimes, mistakes are made and the child returns home after a few days or a week. Fortunately, arrangements are always made immediately for the child's safe return in order to avoid any serious traumatic effects on the child.

Roy Returns Home

Roy was a nine-year-old thin, undersized boy who was brought up in a fatherless home by a nervous, unhappy mother. Mother had wanted Roy to be a girl, and she kept him close to her, taught him to sew and unwittingly encouraged him to develop feminine identifications and overdependence. Roy had never gone to camp before, but the idea appealed to him—until he actually separated from home. Although Roy was referred to a camp specializing in the treatment of emotionally disturbed children, the boy was just not ready for the emotional weaning from mother. He ran away and was returned to camp twice within the first two days. Every effort to help Roy to grow more mature failed and he was soon accompanied back to the station where he had boarded the train so recently with strong ambivalent feelings about camp.

Camp experience for Roy seemed to have been a failure. It had not encouraged the hoped for growth of friendship and interest between Roy and the father-like counsellor. Yet, when Roy returned home, he became aware of the positive aspects offered at camp and he was one of the first boys registered the following season. At ten, he considered himself a

veteran camper, complaining only that two weeks was insufficient time to be away!

Camp life may give the child who feels inferior a means of growing more secure, and with what pride does he return home with a ribbon which he has won for some achievement! The feeling "I can do something" is like a tonic for the child; often it starts him off to bigger and better feats which he may have been afraid to attempt in the past. Suppose we meet Henry—

At eleven, he was referred to the Bureau because, despite good intelligence, he could not read, and because he tended to withdraw from other children and spend his time in solitary pursuits. His father died when he was seven, and his mother has a full time position so that Henry was alone a great deal. Henry's mother was anxious and worrisome. The Bureau found that Henry had too little companionship with other children and was grieving over his father's death. Camp was recommended to afford Henry contacts with boys of his own age. At first, he remained aloof from the other campers; he was immature, oversensitive, and was on the verge of tears when he was criticized. After he had befriended one of the campers in his tepee and had proved to be such a good hiker on a four mile trip that he could keep up with the leader, he began to feel at home with the group. At the end of the summer, the camp director said "Henry made a very noticeable improvement and it is recommended that he be invited back next summer. He needs more opportunity for contact with boys of his own age. Camp has given him friends and satisfying experiences."

The impulsive child (so often the bane of the teacher's existence)—the one who must always be under survey who will do the unpredictable at the worst time—it is hoped that camp for this child will help him to become more willing to give and take and to adhere to the few, simple disciplines expected of him. The mixture of pleasure and schedule may be the means of helping the child to see that conforming to certain regulations is part of daily life and has its rewards.

The quiet, timid child who needs to be gradually drawn into activities will often respond in a very heart warming way to the gentle prod of an interested counsellor. Camp for this child may be the budding of a blossom which will extend into later school life and friendships.

Marie, fourteen, was referred to the Bureau when the school

principal learned that she had taken ten dollars from the purse of a teacher whom she liked. Marie was described as a lonely, deprived child by the school. She was shy and fearful. Her father is stern and strict and frequently threatens to send Marie "to a home". Marie was never in camp until the second summer after referral to the Bureau. She was considerate, enthusiastic, and one of the most cooperative girls in the camp group. At first she was shy and needed encouragement from the counsellor to overcome her fears and meet new friends. The counsellor helped Marie to join a scout troop during the winter and in the summer following, she returned to the same camp. Marie made an excellent adjustment at home, and in school there has been no stealing incident, and, instead, she has developed confidence and social maturity.

The Bureau looks upon camp experience as part of a treatment process, and therefore it is not considered an isolated part of the child's life. Following the child's return from camp, reports are secured from the child, parent, and camp counsellor, which are guides in future planning with the child and family. Arrangements are made, if possible, for the child to continue the benefits of group experience by joining neighborhood recreational centers. The return of the child to the same camp where he formed his first happy camp associations is often advisable and is put into practice where possible. Sometimes, a change of camp is important.

Just as the referral for camp is most important for some children, keeping other children in programs at home is equally beneficial. Helping the rejecting mother to "pack off" the family "bad boy" is not a wise procedure and might result in such strong feelings of guilt and hostility that the problems are intensified as a result.

It has been the policy of the Bureau to help in arrangements for camp but to maintain, always, the parent-child relationship and assumption of responsibility by the parent. Parents fill out applications, accept financial responsibility where possible, usually accompany the child to and from the station (unless the camp specifically requests other arrangements), and are expected to write to the child frequently. It has been, with many parents, a means of helping them to accomplish something which they wanted to do but lacked assurance to do. The Bureau has noted that many parents, having been referred and helped to make contacts with the camp office the first year, have been able to return to the camp office during the following year and make their own application

and request. Thus parent and child are guided toward independence through the medium of camp, among other things.

Entering the fifteenth year of camp service to children under care, the Bureau aims to careful selection of prospective campers and well-planned preparation—to avoid the quivering lip of the child who feels that "Baby is kept home while I am sent away", or "Mommy and Daddy do not love me," and to insure, if possible, a "Hurrah for Camp!"

MEMBERSHIP

Membership in a professional organization is a strengthening factor for the individual practicing within that profession. This is as true for the school social worker as it has long been for members of other professions. National Association of School Social Workers has members in 38 states and in Hawaii, Puerto Rico and India.

All members receive the National Association of School Social Workers Bulletin and other materials such as Newsletter, book lists, conference programs, notices, and other publicity. Membership is determined by the training and experience of the applicant.

Applications for membership and a statement of membership requirements may be obtained from the Membership Chairman, Mrs. Helen Roell, Indianapolis Public Schools, 150 N. Meridian Street, Indianapolis, Indiana.

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Changes of address should reach the office of the Executive Secretary as soon as possible.

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